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# THE TEACHERS COLLEGE JOURNAL

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### THE NOVEMBER COVER

This picture shows a child and mother in the clinic working with some of the toys provided for the younger children.

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# Introduction

Improved communication techniques constitute at once the greatest peril and the greatest hope of our age. Rapid transit from place to place makes it possible for men to get together more easily and more quickly for friendly intercourse. This same increased convenience and speed of transit makes it easy for men to get together to kill each other. More efficient speech skill, the public address system, the talking motion picture, the radio, and the telephone are important media for the development of better human understanding allowing for the growth of fuller and more pleasant human relationships. Efficiently applied, these skills and techniques can as readily spread lies as truths, as readily create misunderstanding as understanding, as readily disrupt smooth human relationships as foster them. It becomes increasingly important that men read discriminatively, listen appraisingly, and speak thoughtfully.

Frequently has it been said that easy dissemination of information and free exchange of ideas are two of the basic requisites of a workable democracy. Somewhat tardily educators are realizing that an important burden of education is to see that functional communicative skills of students in the schools are encouraged as much as possible. We are now beginning to think more of the child who cannot read well and therefore is unable easily to keep abreast of the times; and of the child who cannot speak well and is therefore unable to share his thoughts with others and integrate himself more completely into society.

If our social order is to keep its balance and if our democracy is to maintain its stability, it is necessary that the stream-lined propaganda methods of biased writers and speakers be discounted by teaching in the schools discriminating reading and listening techniques on the one hand and on the other hand preparing our

future citizens to speak with equal effectiveness the unbiased viewpoints of the truly educated man.

Somewhere between the commonality of human thoughts, emotions, and activities on the one hand and individuations of specific personalities on the other lies the secret of successful functioning of education in a democracy. The more efficiently we learn to apply group techniques when and where workable, the more quickly we learn to employ individual approaches when and where necessary, the more certainly will education be gearing itself realistically to its problem. No simple rule of thumb can dictate in all cases as to whether this or that can best be done through group or individual approaches, through classroom or clinic. The determining factor is not the thing to be taught but the person who is to learn. The daily paradox facing the classroom teacher is how to keep children of a large class working together on common problems and at the same time provide for individual deviations. The greater the deviations the larger becomes the problem.

The Speech and Reading Institute was started with the idea of bring-

ing administrators and classroom teachers into contact with persons whose special interest is in the field of remedial reading, speech correction, or the development of more efficient speech skills in the children of the schools. To the extent that these specialists are able to give to the practical classroom teacher more efficient techniques toward the development of a better social order is the Institute valuable and worthwhile. The procedure of the Institute allowed for much time for discussion, demonstration, and interviews of administrators and teachers with specialists. Unfortunately these phases of the Institute cannot be successfully reduced to print. Less valuable, perhaps, are the more or less formal talks of the contributors to the program of the Institute. Some of these talks are printed in this issue of the JOURNAL; others will follow in the next issue. It is hoped that they may carry to the reader some idea of the nature and aims of the Institute.

(Dr. D. W. Morris, author of this "Introduction," is director of the speech and reading clinic at Indiana State Teachers College and chairman of the department of speech. Under his direction and with the assistance of Mr. Almon B. Ives, the first Speech and Reading Institute at Indiana State was held July 8-13, 1940.—J. E. Grinnell, editor.)



Dr. D. W. Morris at work in the Speech and reading Clinic of Indiana State Teachers College.



# Psychology and Methods of Teaching Reading

Irving H. Anderson

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Assistant Professor of Education

By what mechanism does the child learn? Let the teacher once obtain an answer to that question, and she will have secured the surest footing possible from which to proceed with the actual job of teaching. For all that she will then need to do to teach the child is to trip the mechanism by which he does learn. This she will be able to do by setting the appropriate conditions. There is no simpler nor yet more fundamental approach to teaching than that. The purpose of the present discussion is to show what it means in terms of actual practice. We have taken as a case to which to apply our remarks that of teaching reading. Our first question becomes, then: How does the child learn to read?

Learning to read is a process of associative learning. Now what is associative learning? Every student who has taken an elementary course in general psychology will already be familiar with the concept. He may recognize it, however, only by the term conditioning, which is the modern nomenclature for associative learning. But whether he knows it by the one term or the other, the basic process is the same. It is the process by which a stimulus heretofore alien to a response acquires the power to evoke that response. In Pavlov's experiments it was the sound of the bell which acquired the power to evoke the salivary response; in learning to read it is the sight of the word which acquires the power to evoke the response of saying it either aloud or to oneself.

We are now ready to ask our next

question: What is the prime requirement of an effective method of *teaching* reading? There is only one answer. The method used must set the conditions of associative learning. After all, that is the process by which the child is going to learn, so why not teach him accordingly. We only obstruct what will eventually happen anyway, unless we do.

What are the conditions of associative learning? Here we tell the reader only what he already should know. The primary requirement is that the stimulus which is to be associated with the response must be presented simultaneously with that response. Specifically, the child must be placed in a situation where he can see the word at the same time that he speaks it. There are two ways in which that can be done. Any intelligent teacher with a little thought can discover them for herself. First, she can show the word to the child and pronounce it for him. Since he will already have learned to speak the word upon hearing it, he can do so now. Thus, if the word is still before him, he will be seeing it at the same time that he speaks it, which is what we want. Second, she can present the word together with a picture of which the word is a symbol. The child will name the picture, and in so doing look at the word. There we meet our essential requirement again.

## SECONDARY CONDITION OF ASSOCIATIVE LEARNING

We cannot stop here, however. It is not enough that the child merely see the word at the same time that he speaks it. That is the fundamental re-

quirement, without which nothing else will work, it is true, but there are certain *secondary* conditions of associative learning which are also to be met. Important among these are the factors of readiness, motivation, and repetition. Let us treat these factors in that order.

Obviously, there is a point in the development of each individual child before which it is useless to try to teach him to read. One just simply does not get anywhere. To persist may only result in the child's finally withdrawing from anything which has to do with reading. To lure him back later will then be all the more difficult. It is far better to wait in the first place until the child is a little older and more mature. He will eventually reach a point where he can profit by his lessons. What will have happened in the meantime to bring him to this point is not very well understood. We have given the outcome a name. That name is reading readiness. But that is hardly to explain anything. Some writers leave us with the impression that reading readiness is a function of natural growth, that it appears spontaneously as a consequence of the mere unfolding of something already contained in the organism. Nothing could be farther from the truth. If we could raise a child in a vacuum, he would never become ready for anything. Development is always a function of a relationship between growth and learning. It is what a child *learns* during a period of growth that prepares him for what is to come later. And so it is with reading readiness. When the child in the course of his development has acquired those abilities upon which the prompt and precise formation of meaningful associations between the sight of words and the saying of them depends, he is ready to learn to read. It is difficult to predict on any arbitrary basis when that stage will be reached. It is largely an individual matter, which is contingent not only upon the brightness of the child, his experiences and so forth, but also upon the method of teaching used. Some methods make for the easier formation of the correct



associations than others. Where the alphabet method is used, for example, certainly the child learns to read despite it. There the association practiced is between the sight of the word and the response of spelling it. Unless the conditions change, that is the association which the child will learn. Fortunately, the conditions do change, and the child can learn to read. This usually happens quite fortuitously, however. Either the child, himself, hits upon the correct pronunciation of the word on the basis of such cues as a spelling of it may provide or the teacher finally steps in and pronounces it for him. In either event, the child now at last is in a situation where he can look at the word at the same time that he speaks it and thus form the correct association. The point is that there is where the whole business should have started. Spelling out the word is a needless and confusing element.

Well, we now have the child looking at the word at the same time that he speaks it, and he is ready. He still might not learn to read. The reason is that he does not try, has no interest in it, does not want to. In other words, he is not motivated. How can the teacher of reading motivate the child? There are many things which she can try. We shall offer only one suggestion here, namely, that she relate the act of reading to the child's interests, needs, and purposes. Too often, reading is taught as if it were something to be mastered as an end in itself. Learning to read, then, becomes tantamount to learning a trick. And once the trick is learned, the child has no further desire to read. He sees no reason for it, and it is not difficult to understand why. The only use he has ever been called upon to make of reading is to show that he could do it. A desire to read requires that the child discover the real uses to which reading can be put. Let him learn that reading is a means of getting what he wants, of solving his problems, of satisfying his interests, and he will become eager to learn to read. More than that, he will now also learn to turn to reading when

the same ends are at stake at some future time. Thus, reading and books will always remain a part of his life. To direct things in accordance with these objectives does not present a difficult teaching problem. Essentially, all that is required is that the teacher introduce reading in such a way that it actually becomes a means by which the child *does* get what he wants, *does* solve his problems, and *does* satisfy his interests. This can be accomplished through the use of suitable materials and exercises, properly individualized.

We have left the condition of repetition to the last. This is as it should be. Repetition does not take hold mechanically. It is important only as it permits the learner's intentions, sets, and purposes to operate. When a suitable motive is present, however, then repetition serves a twofold purpose: First, it serves to fix the association; and second, it brings into play the process of cue reduction. Cue reduction is the second phase of the course which learning to read takes. It is the process by which reading becomes fluent. Unfortunately, the child is not always given an opportunity to get much beyond the primary stage. No sooner does he succeed in fixing one set of associations than the teacher presses him to learn another and more difficult set. The upshot is that he is constantly having to struggle with a group of new words. Fluency cannot be developed under those conditions. Practice at any one level of difficulty must be carried far beyond that needed merely to fix the associations. Only then will the process of cue reduction really begin to operate and fluency develop. There will be time to introduce the new words later. The child's present need is to practice on abundant amounts of easy materials which do not contain new words. Children will vary with respect to the amounts of this practice required. The slow will need more, the bright less.

Although this discussion has been incomplete and sketchy, even as it relates to reading, it should serve nevertheless to exemplify what the



DR. IRVING H. ANDERSON

writer contended in his opening paragraph is the only fundamental approach to the problem of teaching as a whole. The formula is simple: Find out by what process the child learns, and then set the conditions for that type of learning. Whether the process of learning will vary according to the ability being taught is a question which the writer does not intend to treat here. His purpose has been to apply the formula only to the teaching of reading. There the conditions to be set are those for associative learning. The enlightened teacher can be left to work out her own procedures and devices. She will know what the fundamental requirements are. The child must see the word at the same time that he speaks it, he must be ready, he must be motivated, and there must be ample repetition. Occasional failures she will still have, to be sure, but she will now also know how to diagnose them and to adjust her instruction accordingly. She will understand, for example, how an oral method of presenting the word may not succeed in setting the primary condition of associative learning for the child with auditory handicaps. When such cases come to her notice, therefore, it will at once be obvious to her that the method of presenting the word together with an appropriate picture is indicated.

# The Language Arts in Society

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Here we are: Here are my notes, here am I, and there are you. Somewhere among these three points lies our speech. We are all students here. There is no student-teacher relationship, I hope. In fact, the entire conference is predicated on the idea that informal communicative relationships are normal ones for the learning process. I should say before beginning the substance of the talk that I am pinch-hitting for Delyte W. Morris, and that, although he has collaborated with me in preparing my notes, you are not to hold him responsible for anything that I may say.

As you can see, our subject "The Language Arts in Society" is rather large. It is like the small boy who came into the grocery store flashing a penny in his grimy hands. He stood before the candy counter looking over the licorice whips, jaw breakers, gum drops, bubble gum, and old-fashioned chocolate candy. Behind the counter the clerk was walking back and forth trying to keep up with the eager eyes of the youngster. Finally the clerk could stand it no longer.

"Little boy, what do you want?"

"Candy."

"How much money do you have to spend?"

"A penny."

"Well, good heavens, son, do you expect to buy the world with a fence around it for a penny?"

"Let's see it!"

Perhaps we should take the attitude of the small boy. Let's see if our subject is "the world" or if we can put a fence around it. Let's define some of our terms. First what do

we mean by "the language arts"? For our purposes, working in the English tongue, we can say that the language arts are the combination of man's efforts to express symbolically his thoughts, his feelings, his aspirations, his hopes and dreams. The sciences have collaborated in developing a code of visible and audible symbols which we assume, for general communication purposes, to have relatively fixed or certain meanings. To simplify the definition, "language arts" includes all methods of communication in which those activities which we call reading, writing, talking, and listening are involved.

Of course, we as teachers tend to become specialists in some one phase of the communicative process. We tend to teach reading, or writing, or speech, or in some cases listening, or some special combination of those artificial divisions of communication. And as specialists we tend to believe that our subject is *the important subject*. If we are teaching grammar, then that is *the* subject around which the universe revolves. If we are teaching creative writing then for us the world is interpreted in terms of "creatively written" symbols. We tend to get into a rut—which someone has defined as a grave open at both ends. It is our hope that, by participation in an institute of this sort, we will get out of that grave and "into the groove" of working upon communication in general as our subject; that we will view the language arts as those activities in which man engages in an attempt to transfer meaning from himself to others or to perceive the meaning which others are trying to transfer to him.

## WHAT IS MEANT BY SOCIETY?

Now what do we mean by the term "society"? Do we mean the present social order (or disorder)? Do we mean an idealistic order of the future such as that mentioned by Granville Hicks in his recent novel *First to Awaken*, which forecasts the society to come, or Sir Thomas Moore in *Utopia*, or Plato in his *Republic*? Or do we mean "the good old days" when everything was all right, when things happened the way they ought to happen? Are we dealing with the present, the future, or the past? Let us answer that question by giving a rather broad definition of society. When two people start living together, society, for those people, has begun. For our purposes in this discussion let us be a little more specific: Society is a group of individuals who have organized or are organizing themselves to live together so that what they do operates to the best interests of the largest number of the group over the longest period of time. Obviously this definition has many semantic blockages. Obviously too, it is slanted or biased toward the humanitarian point of view. Also, it depends upon the ability of individuals to judge what will operate best over the longest period of time.

Too, we use the expression "or are organizing themselves," because we wish to recognize that in a society which we term "democratic," individuals are in the process of building, of working, of planning to improve the organization of their common group for their mutual interests. Furthermore, we realize that this definition of society is highly idealistic—theoretical, even. We have deliberately chosen this point of view because we feel that the concept "democracy" and the acts which are incorporated under that term are theoretical in the extreme. We want to recognize, furthermore, that individuals living under a democratic form of society are forced to face the realities of that everyday world in which they live; they are dependent upon the past for inspiration and

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from it derive encouragement in building for the future.

Recognizing this definition of society as idealistic, we, then, can proceed upon that basis. If we accept these two definitions, we can see that, of necessity, the manner in which the individuals who have organized themselves to live together communicate with one another will determine in large measure the success of the society in which they live and which they are building. To restate: If we accept these definitions, then, the development of communication abilities—speaking, writing, reading, and listening—among all members of a society determines the nature of that society. Naturally the divisions of the field of communication operate as a unit; we must, however, separate them somewhat for analysis. When we use the terms *speaking*, *writing*, *reading*, and *listening*, we'll have to keep in mind that we are talking about parts of a whole process or a unity. They do not function separate from the whole. They cannot live without each other.

#### DIVISIONS OF COMMUNICATION

Let us take up these divisions in this order. First we will talk about reading, then about speaking and listening. We will not discuss writing at any great length since the purpose of our Institute is to concentrate attention primarily upon reading and speaking. The reading ability of a people, although it confronts them with many difficulties, has served to mold their society in America, and in the world today. Have you ever stopped to consider how many difficulties confront the American citizen today in his efforts to use the technique of reading? He is flooded with an enormous mass of printed materials so tremendous in quantity and so varied in quality that he cannot possibly read and digest even a small part of it. To illustrate this point: I stopped at the corner drug store where many of the college students buy their magazines and newspapers. How many different weekly and monthly magazines do you suppose they have for sale at

this one, small, neighborhood drug store? I would have guessed twenty-five to thirty. My guess was as good as that of the clerk and cashier. I asked her, "How many different magazines do you sell here?"

"I don't know. Ask the proprietor."

The proprietor came up at that moment and I asked him the same question.

"I don't know," he replied. "Ask the cashier."

So we proceeded to count the different titles on the newsstand. There were no less than 215 weekly and monthly magazines on this one newsstand. On the same corner a newsboy was selling fifteen different varieties of newspapers. If he had happened to have for sale a copy of *The New York Sunday Times* you would have seen a newspaper which approximates a hundred pages, weighs about three and one-half pounds, and consumes in one edition something like two acres of Canadian timber. An edition of *The New York Sunday Times* is classified by one of my colleagues as "an all week's reading marathon."

If all we had to read were to be found at the corner newsstand, or could be delivered to us by the newsboy, our problem would be difficult indeed. But let us consider another source of reading material. If we were to count conscientiously all of the pamphlets, bulletins, records, and reprints of speeches made by government officials in our United States, our state, and our local governments, we would discover a staggering annual total of several hundred thousand separate items. The United States government printing bill alone is probably large enough to equip a good first-class battleship. Add to that the literature which our congressmen send to their constituents for campaign purposes and you discover a great deal of additional "reading material." Our Library of Congress, according to latest reports, houses more than five million volumes. Private libraries on both coasts and in most of our large cities store hundreds of thousands of books

which are not available in that central depository.

What chance has the average citizen when he is confronted with this mountainous assortment of symbols in black ink on processed wood pulp? When one considers that he is confronted with a store of symbols—Webster's International Dictionary—which lists six hundred twenty-five thousand words in his own language alone and when we consider that his vocabulary of recognition and of use is rather small, averaging somewhere between five and twenty-five thousand words, we are further appalled by the reading difficulties besetting an ordinary individual in our society. Not only that, but the radio has perfected a method of flooding an individual with news on ticker tape. Picture to yourself John Smith waking up at seven o'clock in the morning to find himself wound in a snarled tangle of ticker-tape news, like a moth in a cocoon. Here is news literally "hot off the press," yet in a form which is utterly useless for covering the pantry shelf.

When Citizen Smith goes downtown to his office or his bank, he discovers again that business records have accumulated at such a rate that his accountants and his filing clerks



ALMON B. IVES



have been forced to resort to micro-photography to store these records on films which can be rolled on little spools and stored away in small drawers, instead of being stacked in large filing cabinets and housed in separate and expensive storage warehouses. He begins to worry about whether he will have to learn a new technique of reading from a micro-film projector or reader such as the one you have perhaps seen in the Speech and Reading Clinic here at Indiana State Teachers College.

At the outbreak of this present world war our president said that we were "the best informed nation of the world." Perhaps he should have said the most informed nation in the world. We could continue to elaborate on the wealth of materials which beset the ordinary individual, but let us look at the subject from another angle. *If he reads none of these printed materials, the life of our ordinary citizen is still affected by some of them.* For some people in his social group do read these printed materials and translate the stimuli which they get from the printed page into action. An example of that in this country would be a book whose title was *Sweden: the Middle Way*. Although people had been reading about consumer co-operation as practiced in the Scandinavian countries for a number of years, this book appeared to crystallize interests in it. As a result of this and other writings on that subject, farmers throughout the Middle West have established consumer-co-operatives for buying gas, household necessities, farm implements, clothing, and food. Another striking example in our society is the effect of *The Bible*, particularly the teachings of *The New Testament*, upon people who have never read them. The Red Cross, the YM and the YWCA, and the churches of 570 different denominations in this country are concrete evidence of the translation of the teachings of Christ into action. Yet only a few of the people who are affected by churches and other organizations of that nature have actually read *The New Testament*.

## HOW READING AFFECTS THE MASSES

Yes, we can say that in the world at large the reading ability of the masses has directly affected their destiny. China is a good example: The fact that the reading system in China is difficult to master has left the great masses of Chinese people untaught, in the sense that they have not learned to read their own language. Yet the teachings of a book written in German by Karl Marx have influenced them directly through the action of General Chiang Kai Chek. So affected them, in fact, that the Japanese have felt it necessary to go into China and "save the country from Communism." The same book which two—or three—thousand of the one hundred fifty million people of Russia read before 1917 precipitated them into an experiment in communal living. Those who had read Marx and their converts were prepared to put its principles into operation by force. In Germany and the subject-countries of the German Reich five hundred million people are being indoctrinated by books with whose texts they are unfamiliar. To illustrate: Dr. Goebbels has, through the medium of propaganda techniques familiar to our own advertising people, sold seven to ten million copies of Hitler's book *Meinkampf*, while the churches in Germany were giving away less than a million copies of *The Bible*. Few people outside Germany took Hitler's book seriously. They thought it was the raving of a madman. It has since proved to be rather a blue print of proposed action—now more than half carried out. Unfamiliarity with *Meinkampf* has brought to Poland and Czechoslovakia another type of literature sprinkled from the skies by planes—pamphlets urging them to accept the doctrine proposed by Hitler. The next cargoes which these bombers carried were perhaps more compelling arguments.

These examples indicate that many people who do not read books, newspapers, magazines, pamphlets are affected by them directly. Couple with them the results of numerous reading

comprehension tests carried out by the State University of Iowa and other large universities in this country which indicate that literacy is no criterion of reading ability and you discover the predicament of the ordinary citizen. He was supposed to have learned in school how to read. He was supposed to have mastered a technique of getting meaning from other human beings through the medium of printed symbols, yet the tests which have been carried out indicate that about 50 per cent of our literates have a much lower rate of comprehension than do the other 50 per cent. So low is this comprehension rate, in fact, that they perhaps do not read meaning but just read "reading."

If we accept the definition of society with which we started, then we must reject the methods of controlled press and an enforced reading diet. To attain the kind of society which we envision and are organizing we must develop tolerance and respect for the ideas of other people: Freedom of the press!

## WHY WE READ

In general we read for four purposes: We read to accumulate information which we need to know in a world which is growing more and more complicated. We use textbooks to acquire information. We use all the various sources of reading to enable us to do certain things, to act in certain ways. This type of reading may be described roughly as reading for information. Again we read for intellectual stimulation. By this we mean that our emotions, our critical judgment, our methods of evaluation, our ability to discriminate among reading materials, our appreciations are increased. We read biography, travel books, books on world events, and various writings of a controversial or argumentative nature. From this material we derive intellectual stimulation. Then we read for inspiration and spiritual comfort. Many people read *The Bible* daily in this country (not as many as those who don't read *The Bible* daily). Many others read *The Bible* secondhand through the medium of church pam-

phlets and daily, comforting, semi-scriptural quotations. Finally, we read for the same reason that we go to the movies—to escape for a while into a world of imagination or to derive a certain pleasure from that activity. Probably more people read for pleasure than read for the first three purposes mentioned. And that is all right. "Escape" is a legitimate purpose of reading. Perhaps, however, there should not be such a high proportion of "pulp" magazines among the two hundred fifteen which we counted on the corner newsstand: *Magazines of the type of Western Stories, True Romances, Ace High, Action, Northwest Mounted Police, Adventures, Crime, Detective Stories, True Story, True Confessions*, etc. I say, perhaps, the percentage should not be about eighty to twenty in favor of the "pulp." However, if we are to change that percentage, then we must master standards and techniques for discrimination, which depend to some extent upon our environment or background, the reading habits of our family and our friends, the opportunities for acquiring certain types of literature which we use in our daily reading, methods of discriminating among the vast mass of material which we have indicated confront the ordinary man. Such help is to be found in the library and in the professional literature of our field: Such books as *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature* and the material to be found in the reference room of any good library such as the one here at Indiana State Teachers College. Book reviews which are found in our teachers' magazines and in the professional literature in the speech and the reading field, advice of competent people operating in those fields, will help us to discriminate when we read for information in our own field of endeavor. The development of "good taste" depends upon the practice of reading omnivorously, constantly, consistently. You know an individual simply can't read *True Stories* or *True Confessions* month after month for twenty years without growing tired of that and wishing for

something a little more stimulating. (Maybe I am being hopeful is that statement.)

In whatever way we master the standards and techniques for discrimination, we must develop a tolerance and respect for other people's ideas as they appear in print or as we hear them spoken. For out of that tolerance will develop some of our critical powers, some of our powers of evaluation—powers which, in turn, by their operation upon the ideas and the emotions which stimulate us in our reading, become action contributory to the growth of the kind of society we have agreed upon as desirable for ourselves. To be brief, only through free exchange of ideas can we develop a society which will satisfy the greatest number of us for the longest period of time. I shall not go into the question of whether we have freedom of the press in this country. My attitude is apparent in the fact that I consider it a question.

#### WHAT IS BEING DONE IN THE COMMUNICATION FIELD

So far our discussion has been largely theoretical and idealistic. Now, as teachers, let us examine some of the facts relating to what we are doing in the communication field. According to a study by Paul G. Rankin, a doctoral dissertation at the University of Michigan in 1937, entitled *Listening Ability, Its Importance, Measurement, and Development*, we spend approximately 45 per cent of our living time in listening; 16 per cent of our living day in reading; 30 per cent in talking; and 9 per cent in writing. The question arises: "What are the schools doing to prepare students for these lifetime activities?" A survey made by Rankin indicates that, while we spend 45 per cent of our living time listening, schools spend approximately 8 per cent of their time training for listening. Whereas we spend 16 per cent of our living time reading, the schools train us in reading activities during 52 per cent of the language program. Thirty per cent of our time we talk; in schools we are prepared to talk 10 per cent of the time. In

living we spend about 9 per cent of our time writing; the school spends about 50 per cent of the training period teaching us to write. Now we may be inclined to "laugh off" these figures as purely estimates and approximations. However, if we will examine our own experiences with these various phases of the communication process, I believe we will, if we are honest with ourselves, admit that these figures are probably not far off.

But, you say, what of it? What if we do spend more time training people to read and to write than they will spend in reading and writing; isn't it more difficult to learn to read and to learn to write than it is to learn to talk and to listen? And perhaps we might have to say that is true; however, when we consider that how we speak, what we say, and how well we listen are also determining factors in building the kind of social order we want to live in, then it is not enough to teach mere techniques in speech work; it is not enough to teach mere techniques of reading; it is not enough to show a student how to write unless we also give him some idea of what to write. And it is not enough to say to the student "listen." We've got to help him to learn how to listen and what to listen to.

How well we talk permeates all the various phases of oral communication such as: playing with others, conversation, speech over the telephone, group discussions, talking over the radio, making an address at a dinner, defending our proposals in committee meeting. How well we perform in these various activities is important to us, is important to our listeners, and is important to society in general. I shall leave the technical aspects of remedial work in speech, the technical aspects of voice, articulation, bodily activity, and speech organization, and discussion of personality development (with which Elwood Murray at the University of Denver deals so ably) for consideration at later meetings of this Institute.

How well we are acquainted with some of these newer developments in the speech field, however, is im-



portant to us as teachers. According to a study just recently completed by Dr. Wagner at the State University of Iowa in which the speech and the teaching of two hundred fifty junior, senior, and graduate students ranging in age from seventeen through thirty-five years at that University was studied, there exists a close correlation between ability in speaking and in teaching. Those students were judged by their speech teacher on their speaking ability and by their teachers of education on their teaching ability. Again, the semi-psychiatric procedure which Elwood Murray applies to enable the student himself to determine his own speech personality is an important development in our field. Also Professor McBurney and Dr. Hance in their recent book, *The Principles and Methods of Group Discussion*, have outlined the role of discussion in a democracy. All teachers should be familiar with the discussion method. The Institute for Propaganda Analysis has opened up a host of new techniques for the speech and English teacher. The coming of machinery and the scientific methods in the language field have contributed many new possibilities for the classroom teacher. Radio, for example, has opened new methods of speech training which will be discussed later in this program. Studies of movies and of the drama have served to vitalize our talking program. The telephone has increased our social integration and has brought new factors into the speech situation. Recording apparatus and apparatus for analyzing voice quality and articulation have done much to stimulate new methods of teaching the oldest academic discipline—speech.

#### WHAT WE SAY

But when we do talk, *what we say* is also the business of the speech teacher, if language and science are to mean anything to each other. It

is not enough for the teacher to proceed on the assumption that if "Johnny gets up and learns to think on his feet, that will be the best training he could have." Johnny, if he is to become an intelligent member of the society we hope for, must think, plan, prepare, and weigh meanings carefully, criticize himself and his fellow students who are speaking, learn to evaluate what they say from a sound rational basis and from an emotionally adjusted point of view. In an article in *Harper's* in the section entitled "Lion's Mouth," a woman from Denver wrote a letter two years ago, entitled "Some Private Thoughts on Public Speaking," which I wish every teacher of the subject might read and then read to his classes. She pointed out that the craze for learning the technique of swaying an audience had gone so far in her case that she had had to let her gardener go two mornings a week to attend his speech class. Perhaps her point of view was unreasonable, yet there is a certain amount of thought stimulus in that simple fact. When Johnny is taught to speak he must also be taught that he is using one of the most dangerous tools he can possibly develop: He must be taught the dangers of persuasive techniques as well as how to use them—the dangers of suggestion as a method of influencing the conduct of other human beings. A careful analysis of Hitler's speeches indicates that what he says is often illogical, but always highly persuasive.

Then, too, since the coming of radio, listening has become of paramount importance in our field of speech. The techniques of learning to listen differ from the critical techniques of reading and writing in that the stimulus is transitory, temporary; it happens and then it disappears not to happen in quite the same way again. I have heard it said that so few of us are good listeners because we spend our time while another is talk-

ing, planning what we are going to say when we interrupt him. I shall discuss the techniques of listening at greater length in a talk on radio tomorrow. Finally, in thinking over what we have developed here together we can say that a process of getting you here tonight used many of the communicative media. Writing, talking, reading, and listening went into the planning of the Institute as a whole. Writing went into the folder which announced the Institute. You read it and most of you understood most of what you read, at least enough to cause you to act. Some discussion with your friends probably helped you to make up your mind to come. This morning you did more writing, reading, talking, and listening while you registered. You listened to Dr. Anderson talk and you talked back to him silently this afternoon just as you have been doing to me this evening through your facial expressions and the involuntary and partially covered movements of shoulders, head, and hands. The process of unraveling the tangled skein of communication which had gone on in this aspect of our society for the past hour would be the job of a lifetime and the problem of expressing or recommunicating it might be a matter of ten minutes or it might be a matter of a single action on your part in your teaching or in your living.

I believe that most of you will agree with me, however, that our job as teachers of the language arts is the most interesting work in the world, the most baffling, and the most crucial in forming the society in which we have to live. The time has passed when those who could, did, and those who couldn't, taught English. We are here because those who do, perhaps don't have time to teach too. We who teach language must be "not alone sayers of the Word but doers also."



# Utilization of the Radio in the Classroom

Harriet H. Hester

Educational Director, WLS

Fifteen years ago I began teaching school in a small rural community whose residents were, for the most part, direct descendants of the families which had settled that same territory one hundred years before. On the night before election it was possible to sit on our front porches and, by recalling family connections and the various altercations among people in the community, to estimate within one or two votes how the election would go next day. Most of the people in the community farmed the same land, ran the same businesses, attended the same church, and voted the same ticket as their fathers and grandfathers before them. Our contact with the outside world was very limited. Those of us who took a newspaper received it a day late. For music we depended upon the village choir. An occasional moving picture in the town fifteen miles away constituted our acquaintance with drama except for the annual bazaar play which, to our mind, was the epitome of all that was fine. The curriculum of the school was very limited. The textbooks which were being used would have been equally appropriate in any one of the generations before us. It was not unusual for people to live and die without having journeyed more than a hundred miles from the village.

During these fifteen years times have changed. Two things in particular have influenced this change. First of all—two wide white concrete roads have cut across the community. People think nothing now of doing their marketing in the neighboring city. Their boys and girls finish the two years of high school offered in

the local community and go on to the city high school. Some of them even go to college. Equally powerful has been the advent of radio. When I first knew this village there were perhaps only two or three radios in town. I remember taking our private set to the school house in order to hear Herbert Hoover's inaugural speech—and half the town turned out to take advantage of this opportunity for contact with national affairs.

Today probably no home in the village is without at least one radio and many boast two or more. Any person in the village may hear the finest music, the best in dramatic literature at will. As for news, the voice of Adolf Hitler or Winston Churchill is heard in the living rooms of this village before it reaches the back of the auditorium in which he is speaking. So swiftly does news travel in this present day. We can no longer live within the narrow horizons of our fathers' and grandfathers' world. We cannot confine ourselves to a village, a county, a city, a state, or even a nation. Most of us took part in the two major national political conventions this summer. We who listened by radio feel as though we had actually been present. Many of us sat at our loud speakers when the leaders of nations met in a French forest a few months ago. We could even hear the twittering of birds above the voice of the commentator. By means of radio we are transported to places and to times which we could never reach in physical reality. Radio has become a vital part of the life of our nation. We can no longer consider it as merely a supplementary aid to education. Any factor which is so es-

sential in influencing the thought of our people must be considered as a necessary implement in modern education.

Radio will educate our children whether or no. A recent survey of children's listening habits outside of school indicates that the average child spends more time listening to his radio than he spends under our direction in the public schools. It also indicates that in the middle-class American home a major proportion of children have their own radios which they can regulate without direction from their parents.

## SELECTION OF PROGRAMS

These facts would indicate that we, as teachers, have a responsibility in helping our boys and girls to discriminate in the selection of programs to which they listen, just as we have a responsibility in helping them choose wisely from among the books available in our libraries. Also—just as we had a responsibility in the improvement of reading materials for children a few years ago, teachers should now have a share in the improvement of radio offerings which these boys and girls are to use.

The broadcasters of the nation appreciate their responsibility to the youth of this country. In many stations a considerable proportion of time is devoted to children's programs—both commercial and sustaining. At the present time, the National Association of Broadcasters is financing a nation-wide survey of children's programs. This work is under the direction of Mrs. Dorothy Lewis, representing The Radio Council of America and The National Federation of Women's Clubs. Both networks and individual stations are conscious of the service which their broadcasts may render in the education and influence of young people both in and out of school. The National Broadcasting Company specializes in programs for out-of-school listening and emphasizes particularly the Children's Hour each evening. The Columbia Broadcasting Company provides five half-hour programs each week for classroom



MISS HARRIET H. HESTER

use. We, at WLS, schedule many programs for school listening in addition to our five weekly WLS School Time broadcasts which are intended for classroom use.

To the teachers in the classroom, however, goes the responsibility for the wise use of materials offered. I would like to say here and now that I believe the best use of classroom radio programs will be made by the teacher who considers the individual needs of her particular boys and girls, the trend of their general classroom activity, and projects, and interests at the moment, and who selects her radio materials accordingly. I believe that the teacher who knows how to

use pictures, music, field trips, and books as implements in her classroom will use the same techniques to good advantage in regard to radio broadcasting. It would be unfortunate if the utilization of radio broadcasts should become stereotyped; if we should feel that we must, of necessity, have a certain amount of preparation, a certain set activity during the broadcast—and a given number of minutes for follow-up activities in connection with each program. Sometimes no preparation at all is necessary. At other times considerable thought must be given to the material which is to be heard. There are programs which may well be turned off and left for a day or two before discussion. Speaking of discussion—that is the easiest kind of follow-up activity and is more than likely to become a habit. Discussion of the program is nearly always essential, but to be of real value it should be followed by purposeful activity in other lines—such as field trips, dramatic interpretation, research, bulletin board displays, etc. The majority of classroom broadcasts presented by commercial stations are intended to be stimulating and motivating—an appetizer for the regular educational fare of the classroom. They are presented to be as nearly as possible true to life experience. All of us know that many life experiences are more valuable for their associated implications than for the actual experience itself. So with the radio broadcast. It may be labelled as belonging in the field of science or the field of history; but very often it will have connotations which lend themselves beauti-

fully to use in related subject areas. For instance, dramatic portrayal of Benjamin Franklin's discovery of electricity might well stimulate the youngsters to an interest in Benjamin Franklin's literary career; his achievements as a statesman; a field trip to a modern powerhouse; a bulletin board display of electrical appliances now in common use; a dramatic presentation of Franklin's return to view the results of his discovery. The list could go on indefinitely. The boys and girls themselves will have many suggestions to offer.

#### SUMMARY

In summary I should like to make several points: (1) That radio has become an essential in present-day living and therefore should be considered an integral part of the modern classroom. It should receive no more and no less emphasis than other essential implements to learning. (2) We, as teachers, should assume responsibility for aiding our children in discriminating selection of programs to which they listen because they are going to listen and be influenced by radio whether we like it or not. We should take a measure of responsibility in helping to encourage use of the kind of broadcast which we feel should be perpetuated. (3) The utilization of broadcasts in the classroom should be determined by the individual teacher in light of the needs and activities of her particular classroom. (4) Follow-up activities should be purposeful and need not necessarily be confined to the major field in which the broadcast was listed.

# Creative Dramatics and Children's Theatre

Lillian Decker Masters

Director, Children's Theatre

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Four demonstration productions have been planned to show the work of two children's classes in dramatics. The performances have been designed, also, to exemplify, in a measure, the objectives of creative dramatic work for younger children, and of Children's Theatre work for all ages of grade and high school pupils.

An unrehearsed, more or less impromptu dramatization of the Peter Rabbit story will be presented by the group of younger children as an example of purely creative dramatics. The procedure for the dramatization has been planned so that the child's imagination will be stimulated by a mere suggestion from the teacher or director (in this instance the director is a college student, an advanced speech major, who works with the children as a part of practical training). The children are seated in a group on the stage with the director. This is done in order that the children may, from the stage, get the audience contact, but at the same time the informal atmosphere of the classroom dispels any feeling of stage fright, or a self-conscious attempt at public performance.

The group elects one child to tell the story in his own words. Then, moved by simple questions from the director, the children plan the scenes for the story, set a make-believe stage, discuss the characters, and choose their cast. Such questions as "How do you think Mother Rabbit would walk, talk, or stand? Is she a kind and gentle mother, or a stern one?" bring forth ideas from the children. "The story says the rabbits are play-

ing in the yard as the scene opens. What would they be playing, and what might they be talking about?" Immediately the children visualize the scene. They would have the rabbits playing hopscotch, or hopping about in a game of tag. They evolve such lines as "Peter won't play, he always runs off by himself." Or "My, I'm hungry, I hope Mother Rabbit goes to the baker's for some currant buns." They may even bring in a mention of Mr. MacGregor and his garden. Often the dialogue may be a little startling and such words as "lousy," "swell," or "sourpuss" may

be used by the child as he earnestly plays a part.

So the scenes are played and the children dramatize the story with their own words, creating lines and situations as they go along, and fitting in the action. After the play is over, the children resume their seats on the stage and an enthusiastic discussion is held on the merits and faults of the dramatization. They are stimulated and encouraged by the teacher to suggest possible improvements in lines or characterization. They are urged to point out certain bits of the playlet which were well done. With the new ideas and criticisms in mind, the children choose another cast and repeat the playlet.

## CHILDREN WRITE PLAY

The second demonstration is a combined effect of creative and directed dramatization. The story is one which the children made into a play, but this time the lines were set down beforehand and were memorized. The action was planned and rehearsed, and the children were allowed to

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MRS. MASTERS AT WORK WITH A CHILDREN'S THEATRE GROUP



# What Should the Classroom Teacher Know about Speech and Voice Impediments?

Emil Froeschels

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I shall answer the question "What should the schoolroom teacher know about the development of speech and the impediments of speech and voice?" with two short sentences. *He should know everything which helps the pupil suffering from impediments of speech and voice. And he should know how to avoid everything which may damage the voice and speech of the normal child and of children with impediments of those functions.* A child who enters school should have a perfect language and speech. This is not always the case. To be able to understand some impediments present at this age it is important to speak a few words about the early development of speech and voice in the childhood.

We all know that the cry is the first utterance of life and that this cry probably has some significance for the later development of the speech and voice. Not only does the cry resemble very much the vowels, also the breathing during the cry is very similar to the breathing during singing and speaking. If we don't speak, our inhaling and exhaling are nearly equal, but if we speak, we make a deep inhalation and a slow exhalation because we are obliged to present to the listener a kind of unity, a senseful unity. If we were to speak with interruptions, inhaling after every word, we should depend on the kindness of the listener, who had to join the words to a unity to

make this sum of words understood.

Isolated words are not a sentence. A sentence, in some respects, is not a sum of words. But a sentence is a unity born as a unity. Only an analytic investigation may divide a sentence into words, into syllables, into sounds, waves, and so on. But even the child of one year, who speaks only a few words, wants not to utter words. These words really have the value of a sentence. The child doesn't say "apple" to give a name to this fruit but expresses an emotional attitude. "I want to have this apple." "Mother" doesn't mean "this woman is my mother," but means, at this age, "Mother, come here," or "Mother, help me." To understand this, we first have to speak about the real nature of sentences.

You probably remember the struggle at the end of the last and the beginning of the new century, concerning the question: What is the real nature of a sentence? The difficulty in the definition came from the fact that one only cared for the end-product on the blackboard—the different words, which, unfortunately, are written and printed as isolated words and not as a unity. The schoolroom teacher has to deal with this question, because he is a linguistic teacher, too, and the inventions how to write and how to print were made at a time when phonetics did not exist at all. But what we write on the blackboard is not the real photog-

raphy of our living speech. Our living speech is not an addition of separated words one after the other but is, and has to be, a fluent and flowing stream, a unity from the beginning to the end, because the listener is not ready to do our job. We have to give him our idea and our idea is in the moment of its birth only a feeling. This idea which may, after being uttered, be analyzed into words is nothing but a transformation of our feeling. Our feeling is a unity at the moment of its birth. Therefore the end product is a unity, which may, for analytic purposes, be divided into words. But the sentence seems to be a sum of words because of the tendency of writing and printing separated words. In printing even every letter is separated from the other. *Physiologically nobody knows anything about letters if he has not a special phonetic or grammatic education.* To know that sentences consist of letters is not an inborn faculty of man. *Letters and words are nothing but an analytic product and are not the real entity and nature of speech.* If a child is taught that a sentence is a sum of words, he may be damaged. The reason why I shall tell you later.

## DEFINITION OF A SENTENCE

First, we have to concern ourselves with the definition of a sentence. At the end of the last century the opinion existed that a sentence is at least a sum of a subject and a predicate. Then rose the counter question: If I call for instance "James," what does "James" mean? It means a sentence. It is a sentence. And it is also a sentence if anybody asks: "Who did it?", and if we answer: "Elizabeth." It is not a single word because a single word has not this special modulation. Always, if we speak a word, we pronounce it with a certain modulation. But a word in a dictionary may be compared with a dead body to which is given life only by the fluent speech. We use it with modulation, with accent, with emphasis, thus transforming the "dead" word of the dictionary. This is nothing but the appliance of the grammar,

for grammar does not only consist of articles, adverbs, adjectives, nouns, verbs, and everything else which helps the speech to be understood. Grammar is, not least, modulation and modulation is a part of the grammar. We always speak grammatically, also, if we speak a single word only. This single word "James" has another accent than the word printed in the dictionary, a sign that even this word is a sentence and not only a substitute of a sentence. How about the utterance "pst"? What does it mean? Are those only three combined letters? Is it nonsense? No, it is an utterance which everybody understands.

One couldn't get along with attempts to define the entity and nature of a sentence by looking at it as the end-product which is written on the blackboard. Two scientists (Gomperz and Dittrich) wanted to study this question by observing the real psychic foundation and progress, and they found that the first utterance of the coming, the rising sentence, is nothing but a push. One can feel this push, if one hears a person speaking and does not agree to but is not given the time for the development of this counterfeeling. One has in such a moment the sensation, allow me to say, of the miscarriage, the abortion of a sentence, which remains in this undeveloped state of a push against the speaker. This push does not reach the logical order or the state in which it can be formed into words. In this push one finds the real nature of a sentence and this real nature—this first sensation in the depths of the soul—is always directed against somebody who does something and against this action itself. Even if one can't develop opposition against the speaker, one feels that this push in the soul means: "He is not right."

The division of the push into a direction toward somebody and another direction toward an action we call the *general subject* and the *general predicate*. It is only a feeling. But it is, in the moment of its birth a unity, and therefore its representative, the spoken sentence, must be

a unity and only can be divided into parts for analytic and scientific purposes. Thus, I repeat, a word is nothing but an analytic product of a scientific investigation. If we teach speech as a sum of words, we may damage some pupils, who unfortunately are really dealing with this idea. I shall later explain which pupils I mean.

Let me first tell you that in human beings after the cry appears the period of *babbling*. The baby makes some involuntary reflex-movements a few months after the birth. He uses his muscles of speech and produces nonsense-sounds. Those sounds have some resemblance with our syllables and sounds, but also with sounds which now are only present in primitive languages and seldom even in those. They probably represent a repetition, a kind of remembrance of a very early epoch of speech-development of mankind. *This babbling shows a very great resemblance with the chewing*. In those babies of six, seven, and eight months of age one cannot only hear the production of some syllables, but one can see, if one closes one's ears, that the child makes typical chewing movements. Kussmaul and other writers believe that this babbling-period serves for a training of the muscles of the lips and tongue because these muscles later participate in the articulation. We can assume that this period probably is also the training for the chewing, which comes into being very soon after the age of six, seven, and eight months. By the end of the first year the *articulated speech* appears. At this time and in the next two or three years the child does not yet pronounce every sound. We may call this period the period of *physiologic dyslalia*.

It is only a rule and not a law that the sounds which are produced with the lips and the tip of the tongue appear earlier than those which are pronounced with the back of the tongue. After a couple of months the child already produces some short sentences. For instance: "Mother, apple please, apple please," or "Apple want."

## CHILDREN PICK UP IMPORTANT WORDS FIRST

It really is strange to observe that those children, in spite of the fact that they hear very often the articles and the short words as "an," "and," "but," don't pick up those short words, but do the most important ones. This can only be a congenital faculty; the child has a kind of biological gift to learn first those words which are most necessary for being understood. And it is also interesting, that an adult, who has been hurt by a shot or a stroke and has become aphasic, mostly also picks up the most important words, when he tries to make an utterance. I saw for instance a man (later also his brain at the autopsy) who spoke very fast. He said, "I was theater enjoy," or, "Yesterday saw mother, all right." He never used the short words, but only the most significant ones. Also the small child is able to choose the most important parts of the language and not the shortest, even if he hears them very often. Some very interesting papers have been published about the amount of words which a youngster has acquired at a certain age, but it is not possible to quote them in a short lecture.

The kinds of false pronunciation which I have called *dyslalia* are very important when we are dealing with school children, because the properties of the early childhood sometimes persist later on, and the child of six or seven years doesn't pronounce for instance the "g" and say "good day," but "dood day," substituting "d" for "g." What can we do for such a child? It is necessary that the schoolroom teacher study the physiology of the sounds. Without the knowledge of the normal formation of sounds, he will not be able to teach the child how to correctly speak all the sounds. It is so simple to teach them that every schoolroom teacher should make at least an attempt. If he does not succeed, he may send the pupil to a special teacher.

The difference between "g" and "d" is that the tip of the tongue in "g" touches the under incisor and thus forms the closure between the



posterior part of the tongue and the palate; it is opened again, partly by the muscles and partly by the air-pressure, in order to produce this characteristic explosion. The closure in "d" is located between the tip of the tongue and the upper incisors. The tip of the tongue must touch the under teeth in "g" to give room to the rising of the back of the tongue, which has to articulate with the hard palate. If you in a case of replacing "g" by "d" press down with the child's own finger the tip of the tongue (demonstration) the "g" may appear. If you see a child who can't pronounce the "l" sound and says for example "amp" instead of "lamp," you will, if you are informed about the physiology of speech, know that the tip of the tongue must rise and touch the anterior part of the palate. If the child puts the tip of the tongue against the under incisors, you have to try to elevate the tongue, and hold it in this position. In "t" the tongue touches the incisors only for a moment, because it is an "explosion-sound" and an explosion is short. But in "l" the tip of the tongue has to remain in its place during the pronunciation. You may try to help the child in such cases. Even if there are some special teachers available, the parents do not want the child to change the school or to leave the school for an hour every day because of "such a trifle." A harmless attempt made by the schoolroom teacher to correct this little deficiency is surely advisable.

Another case of *dyslalia* is one in which a child doesn't pronounce the "s" as in a sharp sound, in which the stream of air comes out only in the middle of the mouth, but substitutes "th" for it. He doesn't say sitting, but thitting. Another variation of this *sigmatism* is one on which one side of the tongue rises more than the other, and the air escapes at one corner of the mouth. If you use a medical method, the method of percussion of the cheek, you will, in such a case, hear an interruption of the air mostly on one side only. I shall now first percuss my left cheek, but I shall imitate the "s" on the right side.

(Demonstration) If the air leaves the mouth at the right corner, the percussion of the right cheek only will produce an interruption of the stream of air. (Demonstration) I shall give you here an advice for a very harmless attempt. It is a method which I use since a couple of years and in spite of the fact, that you find in my book described a different very impressing method, I don't use it, but use the more simple one "f-method." I let the child pronounce the "f" sound, knowing that the tongue position is just the same as in a normal "s." Then I remove the lips and draw the under lip away from the under incisors. (Demonstration) But one has to apply some force because the child, wanting to continue the "f" sound, presses the lip against the under teeth and against the edges of the upper incisors, as this is the physiological position for the pronunciation of "f." But I don't want the child to say "s" because the "s" awakes in him only the remembrance of the lateral or "th" formation and he will again pronounce the wrong sound. Therefore I use the trick. The child believes that he says the "f," and that is all. But in the first consultation I do it only once. To do it a second time during one consultation would be a mistake because the child hearing this "s" sound which he used to pronounce in a wrong way, believes that I was wrong and will correct me the second time. The child will, for the second time, pronounce the wrong "s." Therefore, I can do this correction only once. In school you may try it once today and again tomorrow, and then after an hour a second time, so long until the child understands that he has nothing to do but to obey. On the third or fourth day the child may do it himself in using his finger. Now you may say: "For moving your lips, you don't need your finger, do it with the muscles of the lips." (Demonstration) You see, that we can leave the "f" method in the hands of the schoolroom teacher. If he has no success, he does at least no damage to the pupil and may send him now to the special teacher or to the doctor.

## CASES OF RHINOLALIA

We now go on to cases, where a child speaks, as one says "through the nose." Let us first make clear the difference between the several kinds of *rhinolalia*. You will remember from our experiment we made this morning that physiologically only "m," "n," and "ng" are spoken through the nose. You can feel the vibration during the pronunciation of these three sounds at the nose. All other sounds are spoken through the mouth. If the other sounds, the vowels and the voiced consonants, have the properties of "m" and "n" this is a sign that the soft palate hangs down instead of to rise or that there is a cleavage in the palate. Send such a child to the special teacher. You can't help him.

If the child speaks like that (demonstration of "closed nasal" sounds) send him to a special teacher too, because this teacher knows that there are two possibilities. One is the (demonstration) permanent contracted state of the soft palate during speaking, where the nose is always closed against the mouth so that this child can't pronounce the nose sounds "m," "n," and "ng." He doesn't say "Ma ma," but a kind of "Baba," as if he had a cold. The other possibility is that the soft palate works normally, but something is wrong with the nose. Therefore the special teacher will send the child to a rhinologist (doctor for nose and throat). You can do this immediately, and the physician will then decide whether there is some obstruction in the nose which has to be removed. If he does not find a very obvious obstruction, he probably (if he has heard special lectures about this question) will send this pupil to the special teacher. (In my fatherland and also in Germany the science of speech and voice impediments belongs to the study of medicine.)

## REPEATING SYLLABLES

At the age of four, five, and six years children are often given to repeating syllables. They suddenly say for instance: "Please give me, give

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me, give me the ball." The child, searching in his mind for a word he doesn't immediately find, does not stop as we do in this situation. Even a grown-up person does not always stop. For instance a student who takes an examination. If the professor asks him a question he answers, he wants to answer, he knows that he fails if he does not answer. But he does not know what to answer and so it may happen that he repeats some syllables, just as the child. Between the ages of three and five a normal child acquires what the French call *élan motoric*. That means the skill of forming sentences—the motile skill of speech. Driven by this inner force, he does not stop, even if he does not find the word. Mostly intelligent and emotional children get into the state of syllable repetition. After a few weeks, a few months they may overcome it because the congruity between the component which I call the "speech temperament" and the faculty of the brain to find the right words in time becomes perfect.

But what happens very often when the child begins to repeat syllables? The mother doesn't understand the situation. She wants to help, but she damages only. Imagine the authority a mother has. We don't know in all our life an authority as that of father and mother over a small child. The mother says: "Repeat the difficult word," not only the word, but the *difficult word*. From this moment on there exist difficult words for this child. This is the beginning of the ruin, because, if such a child is convinced of some existing difficulty, he begins to compare himself with his sister or his brother, who has no difficulties. The child begins to feel inferior, and, to make things worse, the mother tries another help. "Please, don't repeat! Take care!" What should this unhappy child do? If I am convinced of some existing difficulty and I have to avoid this difficulty, what can I do myself? I have to apply force. The child, too, tries to overcome with strain of his muscles the next repetition. He does not say anymore "goo goo good day," but shows a *complete blockade*. This one

calls the tonic symptom, while we call the first the klonic symptom. We now see developing a picture which resembles, but only *resembles*, cramps. All real cramps produce pains. Stuttering does not produce pains—in a certain meaning unfortunately not! Because we could cure a patient much easier if he came earlier to the doctor.

Obviously, stuttering is destructive for the soul of these poor fellows. The well-known picture of stuttering with different accompanying movements of the body destroys the psychical and partly the mental person because such an unhappy boy or girl cannot pronounce some words without a block at those words. Hundreds of times I have heard such an unhappy fellow beginning a sentence in a certain mental direction and ending with saying the contrary of what he wanted to express, only in order to avoid the "difficult words."

#### WHAT WORDS ARE

But in reality those words don't exist. We remember: Words are a special analytic product of science as necessary for investigations and pedagogic purposes as the leaves and stems are necessary for describing the rose. The rose does not consist of leaves and stems; it is a unity. So is the embryo. And though man consists, seen from the point of view of science, of parts—of blood-vessels, nerves, flesh, bones—he too, is a unity. Never in any moment of the embryonic life is the embryo divided into parts; but it is always a unity, growing as a plant, as a tree. It is true, we can cut a branch from the tree; we can divide the tree into stem, branches, leaves, and so on. And so we can divide the speech, which in reality is a unity, into sentences, words, syllables, letters. For scientific purposes you may divide this unity, this living, growing stream, *but you shouldn't teach the child that the sentence consists of words without explaining to him*: When I divide a rose into parts to show you the single parts, I kill the rose. I cannot again put together the parts and make a rose of it. And

neither can we form speech in putting together single words. Words are an artificial product to explain, for instance, grammar. But speech is a living stream. If you have to take care of a little stutterer who is already a victim of "the difficult word" invented by his mother, and you agree to his opinion that he has to bring out words and letters, don't help him, but you *damage* him!

If you find a stutterer in the state of syllable repetition, you may assume that there exists, even in the six-year-old, exceptionally in the seven-year-old, this incongruity between the wish to speak and the faculty to find the words. This is a case in which you, the schoolroom teacher, may help by enlarging the vocabulary and the grammatical skill of the child. Tell him simple sentences, simple stories and have him repeat them to improve his ability to speak and enrich his knowledge of words. So you may help also with a simple method to a small child who has difficulty in pronouncing "s" and "sh" and so on. All those attempts, *if followed by good results*, are of great significance. *They may protect another child from acquiring such an impediment by imitation.*

My time is nearly over, but I want to explain to you my *theory of the origin of human speech*, because I believe it to be of great practical value. If you observe a babbling child, you will find, as I told you, that the babbling movements resemble very much the chewing movements. An experience of everyday life also shows the close relationship between chewing and speaking. Everybody can speak with a bit in his mouth and not interrupt the chewing mechanism. With regard to the fact that the same muscles and nerves supply the function of speaking and the function of chewing, the conclusion is allowed that *chewing and speaking are an identical function*. Observations on primitive people show that they produce voice during chewing and so probably did man several hundred thousand years ago. In other words, there was and is a very narrow junction between chewing and voice pro-

duction. Therefore, those people at the beginning of mankind accompanied voice production with chewing movements if they wanted to utter for instance surprise. This theory has the advantage before the theories of Darwin and Rousseau that it explains the articulative speech. In the

beginning voice and articulation were joined and this common source of speaking and eating helped us to remove bad habits in speaking and even in singing. A large group of functional hoarseness observed in speakers, actors, teachers, singers, even in school children can be easily

removed by replacing the idea of speaking respectively singing by the idea of chewing.

I am sorry that I cannot explain to you the method called the "chewing method." But you will find it in a new volume of mine, which is to appear in a few months.

## Creative Dramatics and Children's Theatre

(Continued from page 31)

work out and use makeshift costumes and a suggestion of stage setting. The play, which the children named *The Ogre and His Seven Meals*, is creative dramatics in that it was dramatized by the children, yet it has a touch of Children's Theatre in that it has been directed and rehearsed with a view to public presentation.

The more advanced pupils in the Children's Theatre class elected to present the third demonstration with a rehearsed production of a one-act play. They were given free rein in the choice of the play and the result was Rachel Field's *Theories and Thumbs*. The group chose this particular play from the many they read and reported on because, as they summarized, it offered the following opportunities in dramatic study:

- A combination of realism and fantasy.
- A range of characterization and types of acting.
- A combination of comedy and dramatic situations.
- An educational theme.
- An opportunity for novel artistic setting, lighting, and costuming.

These factors influenced the group in the rehearsing of the play for an attempted polished performance of *Theories and Thumbs*.

As a culmination of the demonstrations, the two groups decided to work together on the fourth demonstration and combine the objectives of both classes. During a class dis-

cussion of both groups, they evolved several ideas and specific objectives which they felt should be incorporated in this final demonstration.

First, the demonstration would show the harmony and effectiveness of younger children playing in performance with the older pupils. Secondly, it should contain all the elements of a well-prepared and rehearsed public performance. They wanted, too, a piece which would demonstrate both comedy and serious acting scenes.

The younger children expressed a desire to try roles which would be like "character" parts, that is, they suggested that they portray something like "children of other lands." At the same time the high school pupils wanted to play definitely "old" parts and try their hand at old-age voice, dress, manners, walk, costume, and makeup.

### TWO GROUPS WRITE PLAY TOGETHER

With these suggestions uppermost, the class set about to write a play which would supply these demands. With careful and close supervision of the director and college student assistants, a one-act play in two scenes was written and the class named it *Lavender and Old Lace Bombs*. Working the character parts, the first scene was laid in the Lavender and Old Lace Ladies Home where the four lovable, crochety, and mischievous old ladies plot behind the back of the villainous matron

to take in seven refugee children. The children got their chance at character roles in the parts of Gretchen of Norway, Helga of Holland, Edward of England, Leoni of Belgium, Sven of Sweden, and others. The comedy situations of the old ladies trying to cleverly deceive the matron, and the pathos of the refugee waifs about to be turned out provided the light and serious moments of the action.

As a completing element in the class work for the group, the fourth demonstration was staged as a finished production. The groups got practical experience in setting the stage with proper furniture, collecting properties, using difficult makeups, and planning lighting and sound effects.

Thus, with the four demonstrations, the groups have endeavored to show how dramatics for the school child can:

- Stimulate the reading development.
- Bring about an appreciation of good material.
- Develop an appreciation of artistry in acting and staging.
- Stimulate creative and imaginative qualities.
- Produce valuable emotional experiences.
- Produce a power to vivify illusions of the child mind.
- Develop poise and confidence, and increase the effective use of voice and body.

# Developmental Deficiencies and Reading Disabilities

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*The history of American education is a review of the rise of undifferentiated mass education and subsequent attempts to break the lock step created thereby.*

Learner-centered education ceases to exist when children are forced into situations for which they are unprepared. To the degree that education is put on an undifferentiated mass basis where individual variations in maturation are ignored, childhood will continue to be impoverished.

## CONSIDERATION FOR THE LEARNER

Rousseau is credited as being the first who assailed the basic assumption that the theory and practice of education should be determined and organized on the basis of adult interests and problems; instead he pleaded for an approach to the training of the young through their spontaneous interests and activities. From the Stanz Orphanage at the beginning of the nineteenth century, Pestalozzi, the experimentalist, further emphasized the development of power rather than the acquisition of knowledge, experiencing instead of memorization, and instruction graded "according to the degree of the growing power of the child" so that understanding and mastery contributed to harmonious development in place of forcing knowledge upon an organism which was insufficiently developed—intellectually, physically, or emotionally.

This philosophy was brought to America by Maclure and Neef in

1805 and enthusiastically interpreted by Sheldon at Oswego in 1860. Following Pestalozzi, the scholarly and scientific Herbart insisted that "training must be in full harmony with the nature of the child's mind." Froebel protested against the idea that learning should be imposed on the child from without and insisted that the child should not learn to read until there is certain "felt need."

## INDIVIDUAL INSTRUCTION

Changing conceptions of education call for reorganization of school programs and continuous appraisal of school policies. Definite grading of materials and children was unknown in the early American elementary schools. The aims of education were very narrow, the curriculum was limited largely to the three R's, instruction was largely individual, and the administrative problems were relatively simple. Since then, mass education has brought about ministering unto all children. Compulsory attendance has been extended, enrollments have multiplied, public interest has been heightened in a general education, the functions of the elementary school have been broadened, the school year has been lengthened, and administrative problems have become increasingly complex. During this enforced quantitative era of school administration, instruction fell into a lock step which still remains to be broken. As the school plant begins to meet pupil needs, a qualitative era is about to be ushered in which undoubtedly will result in a reor-

ganization of the elementary school to meet pupil needs.<sup>1</sup>

From about 1830 to 1860, one of the chief concerns of educational leaders was the development of unified and graded schools. Heretofore, the instruction and promotion were largely individual. The books used were those which the pupils happened to possess. The monitorial system, imported from England, did much to foster in a mechanical and superficial way a more careful classification of children and the rise of graded schools in America.

## MONITORIAL SYSTEM OF INSTRUCTION

In order to replace a school situation of bad repute in England at the beginning of the nineteenth century, the monitorial schools advocated by Andrew Bell and Joseph Lancaster were adopted. Heretofore, universal education was blocked by the lack of efficient teachers, the cost of instruction, and a serious lack of discipline. The distinctive feature of the Bell and Lancaster plan was a type of modern army organization in which student teachers, called monitors, gave instruction without pay to the younger pupils. This plan was widely received in England because of the low cost and the relative effectiveness of instruction. It served one purpose of heightening public interest in free schools.

The Lancastrian monitorial system of instruction was first introduced in the United States with the opening of a school in New York City in 1806. From here the plan spread to other cities and states, receiving some impetus by the visit of Lancaster to the United States in 1818. By the time the plan fell into disuse around 1860, the American free-school system had taken its first faltering steps.

In the beginning, the monitorial system was used for teaching the catechism and reading. Later, it was ex-

<sup>1</sup>Emmett A. Betts, "Reorganization of the Elementary School to Meet the Needs of Children," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXV (May, 1939), pp. 321-331.



tended to the other common branches and to high schools. This plan represents one of the highest forms of mechanical regimentation against which leaders in education are still fighting.

#### THE RISE OF GRADED SCHOOLS

McGuffey's carefully graded and widely used series of readers, published around 1840, was a natural follow-up on developments in the organization of post-Revolutionary schools in America. Until about 1800, the increase of school population in most centers was met by multiplying the number of ungraded schools. Until the early part of the nineteenth century, grading did not exist in the common schools; individual instruction was the order of the day.

In his much criticized Seventh Annual Report (1843), Horace Mann recommended introducing the graded organization of Prussian schools. Reisner<sup>2</sup> comments: "The first stage in the process of differentiation of instruction took place in terms of schools rather than in terms of classes." The grade classification of children and of subject matter were ushered into the American scene through mass education. And from that day to this day school reformers have found their best efforts to be challenged in their attempts to remove the evils of rigid grading.

It appears that a graded system of schools was brought into being for a number of reasons: (1) The Old World organization of public schools on a class distinction basis was counteracted in the United States by the development of a single, unitary system of free education. Economic necessity and social desire undoubtedly contributed to this action. (2) The increase in the school population made imperative some type of reorganization. (3) An expansion of educational offerings—fostered somewhat by local autonomy—stimulated efforts to reorganization. (4) The lengthening of the school

term further paved the way for a more nearly systematic organization. In short, schools had evolved to the point that only the organizing abilities and efforts of Horace Mann, Henry Barnard, Calvin E. Stowe, George B. Emerson, and John D. Philbrick were needed to reorganize the unwieldy and expensive school of the "three R's" for the purpose of furthering possibilities of equal learning opportunities.

#### PROBLEMS ARISING FROM GRADED SCHOOLS

The graded system of schools evolved during the nineteenth century introduced a type of thinking and practice which undoubtedly will require generations to overcome. Undifferentiated mass instruction is based on the false assumption that all pupils in a given grade are fundamentally alike and that pupil progress can be calendar dictated. It has been shown elsewhere that no one administrative plan advanced to date has solved all the problems involved. In the final analysis, differentiation of instruction must be made in the classroom by a well-prepared teacher concerned primarily with the development needs of individuals.

There is very little basically wrong in segregating large groups of children into small groups called "grades." Difficulties ensue from misinterpretations, confusions in thinking reflected in faulty procedure, and a lack of professional preparation for dealing with educational problems. As long as man continues to extend and deepen knowledge regarding the bases of human behavior, this problem of providing for individual differences will continue to be an increasingly challenging one.

Inherent in this unitary and unified school reorganization were a number of undesirable elements:

1. *School entrance for reading.* Children were admitted in many places to learn to read and spell at the age of five years. According to Cubberley<sup>3</sup>, the pressure of numbers



DR. EMMETT A. BETTS

in the primary school caused authorities in many centers to raise the entrance age to six. But to this day, most parents still expect their children to learn to read upon entrance to the first grade.

At the beginning of the twentieth century, Dewey<sup>4</sup> and Patrick<sup>5</sup> hurled challenges, based on theoretical considerations, at those who would disregard the motives and capacity of the learner by forcing six-year-olds into the learning-to-read process. The greatest minds in the history of modern education have pointed the way, and present-day investigators are accumulating rapidly a great amount of evidence on the subject. The problem is not yet settled in practice.

2. *Grading children.* The graded system was advocated because pupils in the same grade could have the same class books. It is the writer's observation that many learning disabilities in the schools of today are caused by this idea of providing every child—regardless of his capacity or achievement—in a given grade with the same basal textbook. It has become traditional among many

<sup>4</sup>John Dewey, "The Primary Education Fetish," *Forum*, XXV. (March-August, 1898), pp. 315-28.

<sup>5</sup>G. T. W. Patrick, "Should Children Under Ten Years Learn to Read and Write?", *Popular Science Monthly*, LIV (November, 1898-April, 1899), pp. 382-391.

<sup>2</sup>Edward H. Reisner, *The Evaluation of the Common School* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1935), p. 365.

<sup>3</sup>Ellwood P. Cubberley, *Public Education in the United States* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1919), p. 235.

teachers and most laymen to make the erroneous assumption that all children in a given grade can profit equally from the same experiences. As a result, the same basal reader has been purchased for pupils of a given grade, one basal textbook in geography has been adopted for use in a fifth grade, and whether or not all ninth grade pupils can read a given science book they are "assigned lessons" in the same basal text. This procedure is a violation of evidence that can be secured by observation during the first few meetings of a class and it is contrary to all scientific data on expected variations in capacities, interests, and achievement. This type of regimentation undoubtedly contributes substantially to retardation in reading and to the perpetuation of individual reading difficulties. Furthermore, it is apparent that the correction of this particular situation on the basis of preventive measures is not likely to take place until every teacher becomes a student of individual differences in relation to reading activities. Grading of children is made because of the need for some means for assignment to teachers and homogeneity cannot be implied.

5. *Grading the curriculum.* Grading of subject matter first on a "logical" basis then on a psychological basis has brought about an emphasis on "grade placement" of content that has further circumscribed the thinking of both teachers and laymen. The language program for a given grade is in many places still that which is outlined in a given textbook regardless of the needs of the pupils. Likewise, systematic instruction in reading may be limited to one basal reader prepared for a given grade. This misinterpretation of the grading of subject matter has tended to produce a static curriculum with school practices that falsely require an adjustment of the learner to the curriculum. Systematic sequences in terms of individual development should hold sway over sheer grade placement of subject matter.

Careful investigations of courses of study reveal that they have been pre-

pared as *guides* rather than as *prescriptions* for children who have been in school a given number of years. For example, a list of poems for a given grade is *suggestive* only and no reasonable educator even implies that every child in a given grade has reached a level of emotional and mental maturity which permits enjoyment of these specific poems. Some pupils may improve their ability to pronounce words through specific help with word analysis, but some children, even in the third grade, may not need this type of instruction because they don't even have control over a sufficient stock of sight words. To put these individuals through a series of activities suggested in connection with a basal reading program for the third grade may be sheer folly. No author of textbooks can write a prescription which will meet the needs of all individuals in a given "grade." If these individual differences did not exist, then the selection of materials and procedures could rest entirely in the hands of an administrative prescriber.

4. *Circumscribed thinking.* Teachers have permitted their thinking to be circumscribed by this grade classification of children. The idea of systematic instruction is condoned, but instruction is systematic only when differentiated in terms of *individuals*, not in terms of classes or grades. Unfortunately, the specialization of teachers has been carried to the extreme that a typical third grade teacher usually conceives of herself as being only a *third* grade specialist, thereby putting herself in a position where she is unable to challenge all the pupils in a given "grade."

5. *Compartmentalized learning.* The grading of courses of study has set up psychological barriers to clear thinking regarding "subjects" or content. In spite of the fact that reading is conceived to be primarily a *thinking* process, there is still plenty of evidence that it is being taught as a subject. Although the value of learner literacy regarding the reading process is not denied, one does not read reading. This compartmentalizing of content and processes precludes to a

degree the development of arithmetic concepts in the social studies, the development of the ability to study the social sciences and to read literature, and the development of music and art appreciation and skills in connection with the social studies. In short, these subject matter barriers have led to the teaching of art for art's sake, the teaching of reading only during a period set aside for that purpose, and other psychologically unsound practice.

6. *Failure to recognize the individual.* The grading of schools has contributed to confused thinking regarding systematic instruction. It is quite generally conceded that physical, mental, and emotional development takes place systematically. Although in need of continuous appraisal and refinement, systematic sequences have been evolved which are believed will contribute to the development of reading ability. To illustrate, authorities quite generally believe that pupils should develop techniques for establishing meaning in reading situations before attention is directed toward mechanics, such as those involved in word recognition. Investigations have indicated the superiority of certain types of systematic instruction over so-called opportunistic instruction, systematic instruction in terms of individuals rather than classes. Instruction ceases to be systematic for the individual when directed in terms of class averages rather than individual variations.

7. *Prescriptive learning.* Subject-matter-to-be-learned rather than learner development appears to have been the chief basis for "grading" the schools. In his *How Getrude Teaches Her Children*, published in 1801, Pestalozzi indicated his belief in the grading of instruction but he stated that it should be done "according to the growing power of the child." He insisted that individuality must be respected. This quarrel is not so much with the idea of grading schools as it is with the erroneous interpretation by both teachers and the public which has resulted in a pupil classification basis contrary to scientific knowledge. For sometime now plans



for flexibility of grouping have been advanced to counteract growing discontent with rigidity of grouping.

For a period of time following Charles W. Eliot's papers read before the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association in 1888 and 1892, there were many efforts to "shorten and enrich" school programs by departmentalized instruction. This specialization of teachers appeared to be a desirable next step following the grading of schools. Enthusiasts carried this plan from the grammar grades to the elementary grades, but fortunately this attempt to overcome the lack of teacher preparation is apparently on the wane. Not only have elementary school staffs found this plan incompatible with their philosophy of education, but also high-school staffs are beginning to experiment with the break down of subject-matter barriers. One of the chief dangers of the plans superimposed upon school organizations is that of retaining them when they no longer serve the best interests of the learner.

#### REMEDIAL READING DE-EMPHASIZED

Undoubtedly there is a trend away from the current interest in remedial reading and toward more nearly adequate first teaching programs. It is obvious that a wide-spread need for remedial reading requires a re-appraisal of the program which produces this result. Remedial reading programs have served the purpose of calling attention to reading problems.

From the tremendous amount of activity in remedial reading, there has been developed an increasing awareness of the fallacies in the situation. In the first place, remedial reading activities tend to overemphasize the mechanics of reading, or the learning-to-read approach. These practices are always likely to grow out of attempts to teach the non-reader or the seriously retarded reader because these individuals do not have control over the mechanics of reading. The correction of faulty concepts as well as mechanical defects in reading behavior must be considered in a sound program in instruction. That this mechanical approach—even to remedial

reading—is neither essential nor desirable has been demonstrated.

Second, where remedial reading programs have been emphasized, other teachers in the system—not understanding the place of remedial instruction in the scheme of things—have leaned heavily on the so-called remedial reading teacher to provide for the entire reading program. This type of fallacious thinking and practice has violated the philosophy that every teacher has the responsibility of providing instruction in the language arts and in terms of each learner's ability. As a result teachers of science and other "content subjects" have been altogether too prone to continue requiring every child to study the same basal textbook regardless of whether it is beyond his grasp.

Third, a negative emphasis has been placed on learning. Many teachers have become hypersensitive to reading *difficulties* and too few to reading *needs* and *interests*.

Fourth, too few children are receiving adequate attention to their reading needs. In one high school of four thousand students, the specific reading program involved a remedial class of thirty-nine pupils; little or no effort was made to study the larger problem. Sublime faith in remedial classes has led to fallacious practice which now is being recognized. Reading is a perennial problem for all learners.

Fifth, too often those dealing with remedial problems have failed to recognize learning as a dynamic process. The advance guard of eye specialists is concerning itself with dynamic rather than static refraction. Likewise, psychologists and educators are becoming increasingly concerned with learning as a dynamic process rather than as a static, mechanical procedure.

The need for differentiated instruction—that is, instruction in terms of individual needs—has been recognized by many leaders in education for almost a century. Mass education has resulted in regimentation, in circumscribed thinking regarding "grades" and grade placement, and

in fallacious practice—all contributing to a situation of which one symptom is the widespread need for remedial reading. When instruction has been differentiated in the larger sense, remedial reading will be relegated to a place of far less importance than it now holds in the minds of educators and the public.

All good teaching—first, maintenance or remedial—is diagnostic in the sense that the needs of the individual are identified and cared for in situations that have intrinsic value for the learner. When an attempt is made to study the "whole child" in terms of the broader objectives of education, the mental, emotional, and physical needs of the learner must be recognized. This type of program requires inter-professional co-operation.

#### TYPES OF INSTRUCTION PROBLEMS

Reading instruction in elementary and secondary schools has been developed in terms of four needs: individual remedial instruction, small group remedial instruction, systematic instruction in the fundamentals of reading for one or two periods each week, and differentiated systematic guidance in reading and study for all pupils in all classes. A very small percentage of the school population presents extreme problems which require "hospitalization," or individual instruction. Most of the individuals in this category are either non-readers or extreme reading disability cases. So far no one has developed a practical plan to meet the needs of these individuals in large classes. Certainly no one would entertain the idea of requiring a ninth grade boy to return to the first grade for help in reading. In fact, a demotion of a grade or two would create more problems than would be solved. Fortunately, the needs of most of the extreme cases can be met through small group instruction. The major problem, however, is that of providing systematic guidance differentiated in terms of individual needs for all pupils in all classes. Basic skills and abilities can be developed in English courses or special reading classes, but this instruction becomes fruitful



largely to the degree that guidance in reading is provided in all classes. Furthermore, there are abilities, skills, and information that can be developed effectively only as an integral part of the regular class activities.

#### THE ANALYSIS PROGRAM

What the examination can be expected to reveal assumes added meanings to the degree that workers in specialized areas contribute research and to the degree that these findings are integrated. In general, a systematic analysis of a remedial reading case should indicate:

1. *Differentiation of services.* The establishment of psychological, reading, and speech clinics in public schools, colleges, and universities provides increasing evidence that educational guidance is being undertaken seriously. In these clinics, screening tests, of seeing and hearing especially, are being used to detect conditions that should be referred to the family specialist for *diagnosis* and *correction*. In due time there probably will be added procedures for the *detection* of toxic conditions, glandular disturbances, and other types of physiological handicaps to efficient learning which should be studied by a specialist.

One of the first steps in the analysis of a reading disability is the determination of the type of services required for the preparation of the case for learning activities. The reason for this is obvious. The teacher has assumed her full share of responsibility when she actively co-operates with the specialist, when she keeps abreast of new developments in *pedagogical* procedures and materials, and when she applies effective remedial instruction. Likewise, the specialist, for example in seeing, has met his obligation when he has mastered new developments in his field and when he has contributed to the physiological rehabilitation of the case, leaving the pedagogical aspects of the problem in the hands of the teacher. In view of this, it is obvious that the *overlap of services should exist only on a co-operative basis, for neither the teacher nor the specialist can*

*hope to achieve a high degree of competency in the other's field of activity.*

Interrelated with capacity for achievement and achievement level is the physical status of the individual. Specialized research in this area has accentuated differences existing at any one age level. Unfortunately, however, many schools are so organized that the study of the educational implications of certain physical deficiencies has been defaulted. For example, the health office is located as remotely as possible from the principal's office. Very few school physicians have received special preparation for their school duties and very few teachers have any information on the types of services available in the health department. The school physician and the school nurse should be the closet allies of the teacher if the "whole" child is to receive consideration in the classroom.

In the combined files of a school system it is usually possible to find data on the effect of physical deficiencies on school adjustment. One eight-year-old boy is disinterested and in the afternoon one eye turns toward his nose because of a kidney infection. A color-blind six-year-old is embarrassed and made miserable because he cannot match certain colors in a "cutting and pasting" reading workshop or "busy" activity. A nine-year-old boy with a glandular deficiency is denied his recess periods and is kept in after school because "he is slow in his work." A fifth-grade girl is recommended for a special class because she cannot learn in activities which are centered about the blackboard. A three-minute check of her health record shows that she now has 10 per cent vision, that the year before she had 30 per cent vision, and that two years before 70 per cent vision. An eight-year-old girl is referred for remedial reading, when it is found that she has a very serious nutritional deficiency and, as a result, does not possess a physical readiness for any type of learning situation which requires sustained attention. Still another case is that of a boy with a serious hearing impair-

ment at certain frequencies which frustrated his most serious efforts to profit from certain music activities. Yes, the combined files of a school system give mute evidence that there is a need for this co-operative study of physical readiness for learning activities.

2. *General achievement level.* A second important type of evidence that should be secured from an adequate appraisal program is the individual achievement level. One of the outstanding needs for reorganization is evidenced in practices by so-called grade specialists. Many teachers take pride in being a third-grade specialist or a fifth-grade specialist. They expect everyone to be average by ignoring the substantial groups above and below this mythical central tendency. These teachers are great students of averages and are completely unaware of deviations. If they tried to develop a choir, they would select only tenors who would be required to sing the melody. If they were track coaches, they would start every ninth-grade boy to pole vaulting over a bar set nine feet high. If they were tailors, they would try to sell the same suit to each customer. If they were eye specialists, they would fit every child with the same type of glasses. If they were otologists, they would fit all cases of hearing impairments with the same kind of hearing aid. In the field of medicine they call such people quacks; in schools they are designated as teachers of given grades.

In both the psychological and physiological sense, it appears to be valid to state that effective learning begins with the general level of the learner's achievement. When an individual is referred to the reading clinic, the second step usually is the determination of the pupil's reading level. In school the pupil may be classified as a seventh grader, but he may have only pre-primer, primer, first reader, or second reader level of reading ability. This is important to know before the eye movements are photographed, diagnostic reading and spelling tests are administered, or remedial instruction is initiated. For

example, attempts at physiological reconditioning of a given individual's patterns of seeing probably would not be very fruitful if the orthoptist began with the binocular functions when the monocular versions, rotations, and focusing were faulty. Reading, like seeing, is a complex of highly integrated experiences, skills, and abilities; therefore, *the reconditioning or the building of adequate patterns of behavior must begin with the individual's level of achievement.*

The grade classification of a child in school usually gives the remedial teacher no more evidence about the level at which remedial reading should be initiated than the knowledge that the child has normal visual acuity in each eye provides the eye specialist with a clue to the level at which physiological reconditioning should begin. Like the specialist in functional difficulties of seeing, the teacher must begin the rehabilitation at or below the point of breakdown.

Confused thinking is evident in this question which is frequently asked by teachers: "Where should I be at the end of the first semester?" From a study of clinic cases and from reports of classroom observations there is a preponderance of evidence to the effect that many teachers are more concerned about where they should be than where the pupils are. To one small degree this type of confused thinking undoubtedly has resulted from a misuse of basal materials of instruction. For example, it still appears to be common practice to take all first-grade pupils through pre-primers, primers, and first readers in the first grade; to require all fifth-grade pupils to study the same basal spelling list even though some can already spell the words and others cannot spell the words studied in the preceding grades; to require all pupils to memorize the same poems regardless of variations in emotional development; and to give a child more practice on division of decimals regardless of the fact that his trouble may be with multiplication or subtraction of whole numbers. And again, it is not uncommon to find a child literally repeat-

ing fifth-grade activities when even a gross analysis indicates serious background deficiencies requiring help at a lower level. In view of this situation, it appears that basic reorganization is needed in the practices that are dictated by the type of thinking expressed in the teacher's question, "Where should I be?"

If it is to be the philosophy of the school that education really increases individual differences and that a chorus of differences exists at any one so-called grade level, then the teacher should be assisted and encouraged in his efforts to identify these varying levels of achievement. Once this basic concept is established, there will be less emphasis on remedial reading, remedial spelling, and remedial arithmetic, and more emphasis on an adequate first teaching program.

It is satisfying to note that many progressive and alert teachers and that many clinicians are resorting to subjective tests and informal situations for determining the level of achievement in a given area. It has been found, for example, that very few, if any, standardized tests can be used for determining the level at which instruction in reading should begin. When dealing with elementary-school pupils, a competent teacher or clinician can determine the level of achievement for practical purposes more quickly by observing behavior on the materials or problems in question. One of the administrative problems, then, becomes that of sensitizing teachers to the need for using teaching techniques for appraising level of achievement.

Frequently teachers reply that it is difficult to differentiate instruction in the classroom because of pupil attitudes. An investigation of these situations usually indicates a problem of both teacher and pupil attitudes with the pupils reflecting the attitude fostered by the teacher. This was illustrated in a case brought to the reading clinic. A nine-year-old boy was referred because "he does not seem to make progress in school; reading seems to be the stumbling block." Although the records indi-

cated that he was very good in arithmetic, he had repeated the third grade and the principal had tried to put him back into the first grade.

A very thorough study of both marginal and other focal factors revealed normal development. His record of school progress showed extended absences and unbridged gaps in his instruction. And in addition, during his first and second years in school, he was a member of a class of fifty-three pupils. After he was transferred to a fairly normal size third-grade class, he was taught by a third-grade specialist. Consequently, he repeated the third grade. As a part of the reading clinic procedure he was given an opportunity to read from a graded series of readers. The examiner found that systematic instruction should begin with the pre-primer level.

That the boy had at the same time indentified some of his needs is evidenced in his following remarks: "I like arithmetic best. I want to get ahead in reading. I want to read so my mother won't be disappointed." (At this point his voice quivered and tears stole down his cheeks.) "And when I learn to read, I want to keep it a secret so I can surprise her sometime. In school two boys made fun of me because I couldn't read. No one else ever made fun of me. I like games where we play opposites with words, but I like number games the best because the letter games sometimes get me all mixed up. It is not easy to sound out letters. I try at a letter in order to get it. I don't guess at a word. I make sure of it first because sometimes when I guess I might get it right. If I could start out with easy materials, I think I would learn to read."

It is not implied here that the purpose of determining achievement level is limited to the study of those pupils with specific or general learning disabilities. The chief reason for differentiating instruction is to provide equal learning opportunities for all the pupils in a given room. Some third-grade pupils may be challenged with so-called first-grade materials while others will be capable of deal-



ing with sixth-grade science books. Likewise, some may be emotionally mature enough to enjoy reading *Treasure Island* while others will evidence enthusiasm for nothing more than Edward Lear's *Nonsense Verse* or A. A. Milne's *Jonathan Jo*. One of the first steps toward caring for pupils needs is certainly a delining of levels of achievement.

3. *Capacity of the learner.* Other things being equal, the third step in the analysis of a remedial reading case is the determination of the learner's capacity for achievement. About 20 per cent of the school population probably is not equipped mentally to achieve in reading at a level which is considered average for others of the same chronological age, while another 20 per cent probably has the mental equipment to achieve more than that expected of the average. It is, therefore, important that an index to the capacity of the learner should be secured by means of an intelligence or learning aptitude test which does not place a premium on reading ability.

A specialist in the functional difficulties of seeing must first take steps to assure himself that the patient has the neurological and physiological capacity to profit from reconditioning exercises. To do this a differential diagnosis is made for the purpose of identifying pathological symptoms and conditions, specific difficulties, relationships between findings which heretofore have been treated as entities (such as phorias, ductions, and amplitude of accommodation), and compensatory reactions and capacities. In short, the degree of expected success will depend upon the individual's capacity to respond to a given program.

There is some evidence that normal or even superior individuals with a specific disability in reading have been rated dull because they were tested with a "reading" test of intelligence which verified an erroneous suspicion. When reading ages (taken from standardized tests of reading) are compared and contrasted with mental ages, a number of children with average reading ability have

been found to be retarded two, three, and four years in terms of their capacities to achieve. A seventh-grade pupil may be achieving at an average seventh-grade level but may be retarded in the sense that he has the mental capacity to achieve at the twelfth-grade level. In such cases the pupil may not be progressing at a more rapid rate because the teacher may not challenge him with higher level materials, he may be struggling under a physiological handicap, or he may lack the necessary emotional maturity. The purpose, then, of securing a general index to the potential capacity of the learner is to determine whether or not the child is mentally mature enough to profit from reading instruction and, if he is, to gain some information as to *expectancy of achievement*. Although reading is primarily a thinking process, factors other than intelligence also appear to be essential to successful achievement.

4. *Specific difficulties.* The fourth step in the analysis program is the identification of the specific difficulties of the learner. At this point, it is taken for granted that the examiner has secured the help of specialists on any psycho-physiological handicaps (i. e., undesirable compensations or inability to compensate for physiological limitations) and that he has assured himself that the individual stands to profit from specific remedial instruction. A dislike for reading activities, excessive head movements, blurring of the print, and kindred behavior may have been corrected by the wearing of a correction or by physiological reconditioning, or both. The specialist in hearing may have corrected the pupil's auditory difficulties or he may have indicated that the pupil cannot profit from certain types of phonic programs for the development of word recognition ability. And again, a toxic condition may have been cleared or a glandular condition may have been put under control with the help of a health specialist. These procedures are followed not with the idea that the individual is taught to read thereby, but in order to *prepare* the

individual for learning activities. At this point, then, an analysis is made of the learner's pedagogical difficulties.

Psychological tests are used to determine learning aptitude, laterality preferences, mental imagery deficiencies, orientation difficulties, association disturbances, motor anomalies, interests, and symptomatic oculomotor behavior. The findings indicate which hand should be used for unimanual activities, the extent to which kinaesthetic and auditory imagery should be used to re-enforce visual imagery, and the general approach to the problem.

From the subjective analysis, the nature of specific reading difficulties is determined. Common difficulties include: narrow interests; meager background of experiences; word-by-word reading (word calling); limited speaking and listening vocabularies; foreign language handicaps; inadequate stock of sight words; systematic or random errors in word recognition; finger pointing; ignoring punctuation; substituting, omitting, and inserting words which may or may not change the meaning; speech defects; lip movement during silent reading; faulty study habits; and an associated spelling disability. All such factors, obviously, influence the rate, depth, or accuracy of comprehension.

5. *The reconditioning sequence.* Following the identification of the learner's difficulties, the fifth step is the determination of the sequence for the remedial activities. In the reading clinic, the remedial reading is sometimes postponed until the case has been pronounced physically ready for the learning activities involved. The emotional rehabilitation is expected to progress simultaneously with the examination in which the learner is made literate regarding his specific handicaps for the purpose of securing intelligent co-operation and with the development of reading ability during which time the learner continuously is made aware of progress. The sequence of procedures and materials for the development of rate, accuracy, and power of reading com-



prehension is based largely on first-teaching programs.

The remedial sequence depends, to a degree, upon the syndrome, or constellation of difficulties, characterizing the reading difficulty. Briefly, the following are some of the assumptions made:

a. The reading material used should be new and interesting to the learner and at a level which presents few mechanical difficulties. Reading materials used in schools are graded on mechanical factors (such as the rate of introduction and the repetition of the vocabulary, sentence length and structure, size of type, and spacing) as well as concept difficulty.

b. Word analysis or phonic technique for the identification of word forms and meanings are not introduced until the pupil has reasonable facility in the use of words that can be identified at "sight." Word analysis or phonics contribute only to word pronunciation. Steps must be taken to insure the acquisition of word meanings. In most cases, activities which require the identification of words in context are stressed rather than drill on words in isolation.

c. Rate, or speed, of comprehension is emphasized after habits of power and accuracy of comprehension have been established. Silent reading or study should precede oral reading.

d. Since reading is primarily a thinking process thought rather than mechanics should be emphasized. This holds true for a pro-

gram of remedial reading as well as for a program of physiological reconditioning.

e. Since practice makes perfect *that which is practiced*, activities which emphasize efficient and rhythmic reading should be used. For example, a word-by-word reader may be able to "call" his way through third-grade material with some degree of understanding, but continued practice at the third-grade level may increase his facility at word calling rather than efficient reading. Such cases usually respond in a desirable direction by reading challenging materials which may be at pre-primer or primer level. Later, additional help on word perception may be necessary to correct his random or systematic errors in word pronouncing.

f. The instruction should be *systematic* in terms of the learner's needs. This means that the materials should be systematically graded and that enough materials should be used at each level to permit an even, progressive development. As the reading vocabulary is extended, additional technique must be acquired for rapid and precise identification of word forms and meanings. And in addition, learning is facilitated when basic abilities, information, and attitudes are developed in a well-organized sequence.

#### SUMMARY

Variations of interests and ability are sought in life outside the school.

In fact, this premium placed on individual differences has been so much an "outside-the-school" affair that music organizations, art clubs, and other attempts to provide for individual development through activities of high social value have been called *extra-curricular activities*. And so the world moves on, always discovering and capitalizing on individual differences. Great choruses thrill millions, but they are possible because of individual variations among voices; writers entertain and inform countless others, yet they, too, are able to do this because they deviate in interests and abilities; unbelievable engineering projects are achieved annually, resulting from the co-operative efforts of those who vary widely in their abilities and interests; other countless endeavors of civilized man make life challenging and all because men differ one from another.

Teacher discussions of averages, medians, and other measures of central tendency are short of reality unless measure of dispersion, deviations, or variability are added to the picture. The history of civilization shows that neither men nor children can be standardized and regimented; scientific studies in education and psychology which cite the extent of behavior problems and school failures give ample evidence of the need for a translation into schoolroom practice of the present knowledge of child development so that schools can be learner-centered rather than grade- and calendar-dictated.

# SUMMER SESSION 1941

## SPECIAL EVENTS

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION WORKSHOP, JUNE 16-27

CREATIVE WRITING CLINIC, JUNE 23-27

SUMMER SPEECH INSTITUTE, JULY 14-19

MUSIC FESTIVAL, ENTIRE SESSION

## DISTINGUISHED PERSONS TO BE ON CAMPUS DURING SUMMER SESSION

MISS ETHEL BRAY, *Art Director, City Schools, Washington, D. C.*

GEORGE C. CARROLL, *Superintendent of Schools, Terre Haute, Indiana*

MISS MAY K. DUNKAN, *Director of Practice Teaching, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky.*

DR. DONALD DURRELL, *Director of Educational Clinic, University of Boston, Boston, Massachusetts.*

DR. HARRY L. EWBANK, *Professor of Speech, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin.*

MISS ETHEL M. FALK, *Author and Lecturer, Madison, Wisconsin.*

MISS BLANCHE FUQUA, *Director of Child Growth, Terre Haute, Indiana*

MISS MABEL HOLLAND, *Supervisor of Elementary Education, Fort Wayne, Indiana.*

MISS ETHEL R. HOWARD, *Curriculum Specialist, Lakewood, Ohio.*

MR. RALPH IRONS, *Superintendent of Schools, Evansville, Indiana.*

MR. ALEX JARDINE, *Director of Guidance, Evansville, Indiana*

DR. BURGESS JOHNSON, *Professor of English, Union College, Schenectady, New York.*

MISS DAISY M. JONES, *Professor of Elementary Education, Central Normal College, Danville, Indiana.*

DR. WIDNELL D. KNOTT, *New York State Department of Education, Albany, New York*

MISS GOLDA MILLINER, *Supervisor of Elementary Education, Elkhart, Indiana.*

DR. MORRIS MITCHELL, *Professor of Education, Alabama State Teachers College, Florence, Alabama.*

MISS NELLE MCCALLA, *Librarian, Shelby County, Tennessee.*

MR. HOWARD C. MORGAN, *Assistant Professor of Speech and English, Earlham College, Richmond, Indiana.*

MISS ELEANOR O'CONNOR, *Supervisor of Elementary Education, Michigan City, Indiana.*

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DR. BERYL PARKER, *Professor of English, New York University, New York City.*

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MISS MAMIE SPANGLER, *Supervisor of Schools, Lake County, Indiana.*

DR. RUTH STRICKLAND, *Professor of Elementary Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana.*

MRS. VICTORIA EVANS WAGNER, *Principal of Ethical Culture School, New York City.*

MISS MARY WILLCOCKSON, *Supervisor of Elementary School, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio.*

MRS. RUTH COOPER WILLIAMS, *Assistant Professor of Commerce, Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, Stillwater, Oklahoma.*

DR. PAUL WITTY, *Reading Specialist, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois.*

Laboratory School in Session:

Secondary School—June 9, 1941-July 24, 1941

Clinic to be Directed by Dr. Burgess Johnson, June 23-27.

ENROLLMENT: Summer Session, June 9; Mid-Spring Term, April 29.

Elementary School—June 9, 1941-July 11, 1941

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# Who Should Go to College?

The key to this question is an analysis of the successful college student as we know him.

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In high school he demonstrated good qualities of character, and reasonable ability in his studies.

His professors have discovered that he possesses intellectual curiosity.

He realizes that study and learning are the prime objectives of college attendance although he is not blind to the less direct benefits of campus life.

He is in reasonably robust health, and takes care of himself, for college is a rather strenuous life that demands one's best efforts.

Anyone fitting this general pattern can safely decide to go to college.

*Ralph N. Tirey, President*

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